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ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

CONTROL OF WEALTH

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In former times, the island as a whole apparently did not function in the control of land, reefs, or other native wealth. Today, however, there are on Wale five talo beds (*ui*) which are controlled by the island. These are termed *ui uvuus*. After the tidal wave of 1914, the Island Council divided some of the talo lands owned by the maternal lineages among all the people of the island in order to tide over a temporary food shortage. These lands have remained under the control of the whole island since that time. Their names are: Ui lua wunui (2 beds), Ui alapai, Ui kolomui, Ui angatonu.

In economic matters today as formerly, the ultimate controlling units are the village groups. These are independent of each other and may utilize their lands and reefs in any way they wish; in practice, however, they all conform to the same pattern of control.

Village Property

REEFS

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The barrier reef (*te oyanga loa*) and all fishing grounds on the reef, inside and outside the lagoon, are divided among the villages as follows:

The reef from Wale to Matautu, the northern point of Motu Ko, belongs to Ngake; no men or canoes other than those of Ngake are allowed on or near this part of the reef. The reef between Matawea, the western point of Motu Ko, and Motu Kotawa is divided into halves (*itu*), one half belonging to Ngake, the other to Yato. The reef fishing from Motu Kotawa to Wale belongs to Yato, but because lagoon fishing in former times was controlled by Ngake, the men of Yato could fish only outside this reef. Without permission from Ngake villagers men of Yato could not go to their reserve by canoe across the lagoon but had either to coast along the outside of the reef or to walk along the reef shelf. The outer, northern reef, running round the reserve of Niua (the northwestern side of Wale) as far as the boundary of the Loto reserve of Uta, was controlled by Yato; the outer reef from this point to the eastern boundary of Uta was controlled by Loto; the rest of the reef running past Utupoa to the main reef was controlled by Ngake. Each village had the right to the beach and lagoon fishing on its own shore (*tuhutai*). The rest of the lagoon away from the village frontages belonged to Ngake.

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The control of reefs, though apparently weighted heavily against the village of Loto, worked with a certain flexibility. The men of Ngake announced at frequent intervals to the men of the other two villages that they might fish in the lagoon for one moon. At the end of the period the lagoon was tapu for all save Ngake men. All economic tapus (*lausi*) were supported by supernatural sanctions. The two villages benefiting by this generosity took gifts of food, usually nuts and talo, to Ngake in payment for benefits received. Special gifts were sometimes given as when Yato made an expedition to Motu Kotawa and returned with extra supplies of *takupa* birds (tern).

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The open sea opposite each reef was controlled by the village owning the reef and only men from that village might go deep-sea fishing there. As the canoe channel on the western reef was controlled by Yato village, men from Loto and Ngake had to receive permission before taking their canoes across the break (*awa*) in the reef at this point. This was a frequent request, for the only other break close to the villages is on the north-eastern side of Wale, rarely as sheltered and manageable as the western side. Permission was given as a matter of generosity. Trespassers in the fishing reserves of other villages were punished by fines in nuts levied by the guards (p. 37) of the village whose reef was violated.

Before the causeway (*holo*) was built across the western arm of the lagoon on Wale, this lagoon indentation was considered a part of the reserve of Nissa. After the causeway was constructed, Yato village still retained control of the "bay", and turned it into a fish pond. It is simply called *te loto*, the name for any enclosed water. This pond contains many *awa* fish (white mullet), which fatten on the algae growing on the lagoon bottom. The fish are tapu for most of the year, but at certain arranged times, generally at the end of each month, the pond is opened to fishing parties from Yato for one or more days. Fishing is sometimes an individual matter; at other times all the men of Yato fish together on the same day. The catch is divided among all the people of the village. Some of this fish finds its way through gift to other villages, but the sole right to fish in this pond is jealously guarded by Yato men.

LANDS AND BOUNDARIES

The land on the three islets is divided among the villages. Each village retains control of the lands specifically set aside as communal village lands. The rest of the land within the village boundaries is controlled by the paternal and maternal lineages. The village boundaries (*tuakoi*) on Wale are shown on the map (fig. 1*b*).

The present boundary lines between the villages date from a period just after the great seismic wave of about 300 years ago. After this catastrophe, in the reign of the chief Maina or of his successors, Tuliayanga and Alitalupa, it was decided to realign the boundaries to take care of population growth. The technique used is called *tuinoi*, a form of stick wrestling. A weapon (*holo*) of metua wood, about 4 to 6 feet long, is held by two men facing each other, each trying to push his opponent backward. The boundary advances or retreats according to the position of the weapon. In the contest in question, all three villages participated, lined up along a provisional boundary running from lagoon to outer beach near the present church.

Loto found Yato on the west and Ngake on the east. Before the contest commenced, the high chief (*aliki nui*) went to the sacred place of the goddess Tema and requested

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226 796 782 of hooks, communicated with this god to insure his favor during the coming bonito season. The old men (*tupale*) decided which of the younger men should make up the bonito-fishing group (*natanga*) for the season. None but the men of this group might fish *ate*. The *natanga* fishermen were fed by the old men, who gave them cooked taro to take with them each day they went fishing. The fish caught were all brought to the meeting place (*malae*) of the old men and there divided among the people of the island with the provision that each man of the fishing group was allowed to have the head of the fish he caught in addition to his share of the flesh. The group which caught *ate* one year automatically became the group for scouting *pala* fish the next year. All fish caught were similarly divided by the old men among the people. The men of the *natanga* group, which consisted of about four canoe crews, each of five or six men, were taught the elements of *ate* fishing, the rules, taps, and skills before the season started. There were no special names for the crew members. The best fisherman (*tangata tau matua*), who was usually also the oldest man of the group, became captain. His was the canoe that always shot the reef passage first. The next canoe to follow had the next oldest man of the *natanga* as captain, and so on for all the canoes of the *natanga*.

226 768 731 Besides having care of the canoe and fishing gear, the captain of each canoe was responsible for providing bonito hooks. He had to provide one hook for each member of the crew, including himself; in a six-seater canoe the captain went fishing with six bonito hooks on his bonito rod. If, while the canoe was fishing, a storm arose that seemed likely to break the canoe up, the captain gave to each member of the crew one bonito hook from those on his rod. Each man tied his hook around his neck to act as a breast ornament (*yasa*); were the men drowned thereafter, each went to his death provided with his death ornament. If there were too few hooks to go round the crew, as might sometimes happen if hooks were lost from the line while fishing, the captain gave to those without hooks any article of value in the canoe—a section of anchor rope or ordinary single-piece hooks. In this way no member of the crew lacked a death gift. The theory behind this was that the captain was responsible for getting together his crew, for their safety in this life, and for their dying at sea as well provided with gifts as if they died on land. To give out the gifts was *tuakoyanoa*, and the gift itself was *yasa*, as distinguished from the death gift on land, *tuatanga*.

Ate fishing was a somewhat perilous occupation because the canoe might press out far from land in pursuit of a shoal of fish and, caught in a storm, be unable to make a landfall again.

226 [782] The canoes of the *natanga* left the village early in the morning. As they passed the rock called Te Uto-ranga-o-te-tokalau, which juts out of the water opposite Yato village, the captain placed a male, hook, or simple coconut leaf on this rock as a gift (*tuakoivivo*) to the god Malelolelangi, that the god would give the canoes good fortune. It was taps for any canoe going across the reef to scrape the bottom on the coral. If a canoe did this, it could not proceed further but had to return to the village without fishing during the day. Rain drives away bonito fish from the surface, and if the canoes did not sight fish after patrolling for some time, it was permissible for them to return to the reef to rest. All the crew, save only the bowman, might step out on the reef and walk about; if the bowman forgot the taps and stepped out, the whole crew had immediately to return to the village without further delay, even if meantime a shoal of fish had been sighted. If this taps was disobeyed, the canoe was likely to be destroyed by lightning. When the victims of such a mishap as the breaking of a tapu returned to the village, they were greeted with insults and labeled *ngongo elo* (stinking ngongo birds). The shame of the crew was great if later in the day the other canoes of the group returned loaded with *ate* fish.

226 [825] Bonito was not regarded as a fish (*ika*) but as an animal (*manu*). Fishermen located bonito schools by the flocks (*tuae*) of seabirds following them. Canoes trolled up and down outside the reef. The captain sat against the bonito rod, which was sup-

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223 crab (*wapo*) or, alternately, a bait of small periwinkle meats or centipedes (*wiki*) is tied to the ends of each of several lines which are laid across the beach, the other ends being fastened to a near-by tree or to stakes. The birds swallow the baits, are unable to disgorge them, can not fly away, and are caught. *Kouv* and *matiku* birds are caught thus with *wapo* bait, *tuki* with periwinkle or centipede bait.

7. Fowling line, generally used to catch sea birds.

A length of *wau* line is attached at one end of a pole from 6 to 9 feet long. A piece of coral stone weighing about 2 ounces is fastened to the free end of the line. When a bird has been attracted close to the tree in which the catcher hides, or when it circles low over the beach, the line is thrown out. The weight of the stone carries the line round the bird. The line encircles the bird several times and entangles its wings. It is then drawn to the catcher. No decoy birds were used in this method of bird catching, nor was the stone weight shaped in any way. The use of line, shaped stone, and decoy bird is reported for Aparaanas by Woodford (19.3:354), the use of line and shaped weight for Vaitupu (19.9:296), and for Nauru (14.9:269).

House Building

342 476 The framework for small houses is erected by the owner and a few of his friends. If a big house is contemplated and speed is required, the kinship group is mobilized and the work continued until the frame is completed. The able-bodied men work on the frame while the older men work near by making the sennit for the lashings. Today the framework of most small houses is fitted together in some shady, cool place whether the actual site of the new house is unoccupied or already occupied by an old house which is to be replaced. When the frame is completed, it is taken to pieces, transported to the house site and there put together again. The roof framework is fixed together permanently at the work site and then bodily transported to the house site. In big houses, however, the frame is usually erected on the house site in the first instance. The house framework is usually built during the cooler weather just after the winds swing round to the southeast.

342 Unless the house is very small, the thatching (whether of a new or old house) is done by a working party. The sides and ends of each roof are divided into sections (*mwenga* or *tuta*) of a certain width running from eave to ridgepole. Two to three sections are generally reckoned for the side of an average house. The pile of roof sheets for each section is termed *pinaki loa*. The type of thatching desired, whether *ato tele* or *ato pinaki*, and the distance between each successive roof sheet is specified beforehand.

342 4K 131 The owner of the house arranges with as many friends as necessary, each to assume responsibility for preparing the roof sheets and sennit, and for thatching one section of the house. Each man may elect to do all the work himself or he may call in a group of friends to help him with his section. The work is paid for by a food division, one share being set aside for each section that has been contracted out. This share is redivided among the helpers in each section. The amount of food constituting a share depends

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on the owner's generosity, but no man who expects to call on friends again can afford to be stingy in his food division. The amount of food in each share is slightly increased for the more laborious types of roof thatching.

The same method of contracting is used today in building the slat walls for a modern house. The space between the uprights is divided into sections (here called *maleva*), and one food share is set aside for those who complete a section (*paipai na maleva*). The food division at which the shares are handed out to the workers is termed *ngalungu*. That this division may be made immediately the work is completed, the more farsighted arrange for it ahead of time by placing a tapu on their taro and nuts, and by fattening pigs. Others, not so far-seeing, wait until the work is completed before beginning to gather food, and the workers may have to wait patiently for some time before the payment is made. Informants seemed to think that a two-year wait would be the limit. If the owner showed no signs by this time of preparing his food division, it would be legitimate for the workers to make pointed comments about his stinginess. In any case, no man who was at all proud of his reputation in the community could afford to wait as long as two years.

There is no specialization in Pukapukan house building, and not the slightest suggestion of any guild organization. It is for this reason, perhaps, that an average-sized dwelling house takes from seven months to a year to build. The actual labor involved is not great, but the owners must frequently put aside work on the new house in order to engage in other activities. Delay is also caused by the necessity of laying in reserve food supplies to pay the workers in the next stage of construction. It is possible that the time taken to build a house today with iron tools (as also a canoe), is conditioned by the carry-over of temporal patterns from an earlier time when work was done with shell adzes and must of necessity have proceeded slowly. Also a work in hand gives a man a feeling that his time is valuable, and increases his importance in the community as one who has undertaken a work of magnitude and who is theoretically busy at this work when others may be idle.

There is no record in Pukapuka of any rites, tapus, chastities, prayers to the gods, or other ceremonies connected with house building. The completion of a new god house was marked by a feast, but there was no consecration of the house before it was used.

Canoe Building

There is no name for the expert canoe builder other than the general descriptive terms, *tangata matanta* or *tangata tau waka*, applied to any expert craftsman. Expertness in canoe building is associated with families of canoe builders by whom most of the canoes on the island are made.

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244 The sizes of the talo tubers are: *piki* (small corms), *vovenga* (slightly larger corms), *vaivai uoiva* (still larger corms), *ulupoko* (very big corms), and *punia* (enormous ones, as big as *pulako* corms and no longer good for eating).

A good commentary on the cultivation of talo is found in the first section of the chant, "Maka te kupu ki te tonoanga", in praise of a woman's skill at talo growing (1).

DISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH

Gifts

433 571 431 Much of the produce of labor is used for immediate consumption by the worker and his household. The talo harvested by the women of the household, the mats they plait, the fish and nuts produced by the men, the house that is built by a man, are all consumed by the household group. Some of the wealth of the household—whether food or more durable articles such as pearl-shell fishhooks and ornaments—is distributed through the gift exchange or as payment to workers who are producing other objects of value for the household. Another part of this wealth is distributed through the feasts that mark crises in the lives of the individual members of the group.

Most gifts require a reciprocal gift of equivalent value. When members of one household have more than they can immediately consume they give staple articles such as food, fish, talo and nuts to relatives and friends, but only on the assumption that everyone in the community is following the same social principle and that the gift will be reciprocated at some later 431 occasion when the recipients are well provided with food. One widow and her young children are frequently given gifts of food, fish especially, by relatives and neighbors without, I think, any feeling that the widow should or could reciprocate. The villagers are sorry for her plight and give [574] out of pity and neighborly feelings. Gifts to transient visitors on the island are made freely and without thought of return; the tradition of hospitality requires the expression of friendship through the making of gifts. Gifts to more permanent visitors are made within terms of the implicit system of gift exchange, but insofar as the givers are many and the recipients are few, the return gift is not expected to equal the value of the first gift. The return gift in this case merely symbolizes the completion of the transaction, and honor is satisfied on both sides.

Various types of gifts are named according to the way they enter into the system of exchange:

431 195 The word *tauagalea* is applied to a family heirloom, a pearl-shell ornament for instance, an appropriate gift to a living person. *Tauagalea* is also a gift of remembrance when two friends part from each other. Such a gift is referred to metaphori-

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cally to mean *tukuna* "the rear (bottom) of the covered satchel", the implication being that the gift is one of the very precious articles which are always kept hidden in the bottom of the *tukuna* satchel. Such a gift demands in exchange another *tangaloa*. *Wakaga* is a gift made to a dead friend or relative's body. The gift will be recompensed in part by a food division accompanying the mourning ceremonies, in part by an expected return from the family of the deceased when the giver himself dies. *Tapa* is the name for a gift of food or mats to the bride or groom at a wedding feast. It, too, is recompensed by a food division and by return gifts when there is a wedding in the household of the giver. The same word, *tapa*, is applied to a gift to the gods, whether a gift of coconuts to the god Tamuyei, a gift of taro to the gods Matalomea and Matalolua, or a gift of fish to a priest, ultimately to be given to a god. These gifts are made to procure the good will of the gods. A *wakaiaga* is a gift made by one lover to another and carries with it the expectation of a return gift. The lovers' gifts thus symbolize a temporary or permanent relationship between the two persons who are attracted to each other (p. 190).

Gifts which are given at birth, wedding, or death celebrations imply a greater degree of compulsion than other gifts. They are termed generically, *mea* (things), and the cultural implication is that they are required of relatives no matter what the personal relations between giver and recipient may be. Other gifts are, culturally, supposed to be free gifts. Whether the gift is free or compulsory, the expectation of return varies only slightly in binding force; the ethical obligation is equally strong.

A return gift of lesser value than the first gift is termed *tali*; one of equal value to the first gift is *yoyoi*, and one of greater value, whether given through extensive generosity or to shame the first giver, is *yoyou nunui*. To refuse to accept a gift is termed *po tali*; such refusal is tantamount to an open declaration of ill-feeling between the two groups concerned. The generous man is *atawai*, the mean or stingy person, *kakiouga*. There is no record of reciprocal gifts between paternal or maternal lineages at any personal ceremonials.

A marked temporal discontinuity in the gift exchange system occurs in the return of compulsory gifts. Death or marriage gifts may not be returned until an interval of many months or years has elapsed. The giving of the return awaits the occurrence of a life crisis in the household of the original giver, and until this crisis occurs, the debt remains unpaid. There is no such discontinuity in more personal gifts given in less formalized situations. Gifts between lovers or gifts of remembrance evoke immediate return gifts, so that the relation between the two parties to the exchange is defined once and for all at the earliest possible moment.

Owing to lack of contact with outside peoples, trade played no part in native Pukapukan economy. The village copra crops are disposed of today to traders for money, which is divided among all the men, women, and children of the village, to be disposed of according to individual choice.

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PAYMENTS

437 Mention has been made of services which are paid for. A man who
431 borrows a canoe gives fish in payment. A man who engages a medicine
476 man may make a return of food for his services. Distribution of food and gifts accompany the building of a house or canoe:

574 When a man decides to have a canoe built and has assured himself of the neces-
554 sary timber, he makes arrangements with his relatives to have a stocktaking of avail-
[322] able food supplies. They then increase supplies deemed insufficient, by planting more talo, placing a prohibition over growing talo, and by acquiring more pigs which are fattened by a diet of coconuts. When the food is sufficient and has all been mobilised, the work is started. Groups of relatives assume responsibility for providing food day by day for the carpenters, bunches of nuts in the early morning and staple foods in the afternoon. The prospective owner of the new canoe is obliged to provide liberal quantities of food in order to avoid the reputation of stinginess and meanness. When the canoe is finished, it is launched and taken fishing for one or two days. This fishing is termed *wakeyino te vuka* (oiling the canoe). The biggest fish caught is given to the head carpenter, the remainder, after gifts (*matanga*) have been made to the chiefs, goes to the feast (*vakaomalinga*) for the canoe builders. A good catch of fish for the new canoe is called *vakayinanga matala* (lucky oiling). At the final feast (*malinga*) for the workers and for those who have assisted in providing food to finance the construction, every endeavor is made to have a great display of food. At this time gifts, depending on the size of the canoe and the wealth and status of the owner, are given to the builders. Average gifts in former times for a large canoe were: for each assistant carpenter, one fishing line of *uwa*, one anchor line of sennit, one paddle, and one pearl-shell fishhook; for the chief carpenter, the same in addition to one sennit malo and one fishing rod, preferably a bonito rod, complete with four or five bonito hooks.

[342] The amount of food distributed to recompense workers building or thatching a house depends on the size of the house.

For one average-sized sleeping house, 1,600 nuts, 800 *manu* (talo puddings, each weighing about 3 ounces), and four pigs were provided; 100 nuts, 100 *manu*, and one pig were distributed among the staff that killed and cooked the pig and prepared the talo; of the remainder each man and woman received two *pona* (pieces of pork 5 × 4 × 2 inches); each man received seven *manu*, each woman five *manu*, each child one *manu*; each man and woman received 20 nuts, each child one nut. This feast, originally prepared for the workers, who were drawn from the hymn-singing group (*pupu himene*) of the village, was divided among the village as a whole because of the great quantities of food. The owner of the house acquired increased status through this inclusion; everywhere remarks were made about his generosity.

262 To celebrate the completion of the present London Missionary Society church, each
574 village in turn feasted the whole island. These feasts were the largest that are remem-
431 bered within historic times on Pukapuka. Four talo puddings, each weighing about 3
621 pounds, were provided for each man and each woman; one pig for each man; 1,600
627 nuts for each man and each woman, with proportionately smaller amounts of all these foods for each child. Even though quantities were given away to a trading schooner that happened to be visiting the island, large amounts of the food were left to rot, proof that the time was one of great feasting and abundance.

Feasts are held in each village at Christmas time, when in alternate years groups of men and of women visit and dance in the villages away from home. Each village is host to these groups of visiting dancers, and provides food
1 [i.e., to prevent its being harvested--analyst.]
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to distribute among them. The food prepared by Yato village for Christmas, 1934, is typical of the amounts distributed: 104 *ava* fish from its fish pond, 500 cooked talo tubers, 100 limes, and 37 papayas from Motu Kotawa, 210 drinking nuts and 20 bottles of coconut and salt-water sauce (*tai*). This was divided among about 100 visiting women.

Feasts

The important part played by the food division in distributing wealth throughout the community may be best seen in a summary of the characteristic features and types of feasts. The Pukapukan feast (generic name, *inus kai*) does not connote an eating together by the parties to the feast. The essence of the feast is a food division. The food is collected and then divided among all concerned, often among the people who have themselves provided the food. It is then taken away and eaten by each household group in the privacy of its own cook house or near by. The Pukapukan *inus kai* is a mechanism whereby stimulus is provided for the extra production and distribution of food on socially set occasions, that all concerned may eat more abundantly than usual and by this eating symbolize a bond of relationship between two groups of people.

To honor another person, a man or woman sends chicken, nuts, and uncooked talo. The gift, also termed *inus kai*, is cooked and eaten in privacy. On an enlarged scale, the same mechanism prevails for feasts, save that the division of collected food operates to give back to each approximately the amount of food that he has contributed. The amount of food expected from each household is settled beforehand. Anyone who fails to contribute accordingly does not share in the division. In this way, it is assured that the contributions will be equal in amount and quality and that no one will be unfairly favored in the subsequent division. All contribute, share, and eat the same foods. For feasts to pay workers for their services, relatives are expected to contribute food. The person for whom the work is being done is expected to contribute in quantity or quality sufficient extra food to ensure that relatives do not suffer too severely in the division.

Named Pukapukan feasts are:

1. *Monotanga*, a big feast for the island. Occasioned in former days by the induction of a chief, today it marks the completion of some village or island enterprise, such as the building of church or meeting house. The feast might be provided by all three villages at one time or by each village in turn for the other two villages. At a chiefly induction, arrangements were handled by the sub-chiefs and the group of elders (*tupele*), who decided the nature of the contributions (amount of food, size and variety of talo dishes, kind of fish, etc.) to be made by each village. For such an occasion as this, the paternal lineage of the chief might provide the *monotanga* for the rest of the island, if the lineage were wealthy in food supplies and wished to make a grand gesture indicative of its wealth. A well-remembered *monotanga* feast occurred in 1916; the talo harvest

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431 574 on Motu Ko was so large that Ngake village made a present of 2,000 talo tubers to each canoe from the other two villages that went across to Ko to get the food. This was an act of generosity, marking no set occasion.

621 527 262 2. *Lovaya*, a village feast held today on the completion of some village activity. It formerly occurred on the rising of the Pleiades to celebrate the beginning of the season of plenty. It was timed to coincide with the lifting of the prohibition (*lasi*) on village food reserves. The communal gathering of food for such a feast is also called *lovaya*, as *lovaya kavea* (crabs), *lovaya manu* (birds). A *lovaya* after a tapu period ensures that after the period of privation the special foods will be shared among all the villagers. If talo, nuts, and fish are plentiful when the tapu is raised, the *lovaya* feasting may last for one or two moons. After a preliminary survey of the food resources, the village men decide how many divisions there are to be in each moon and how many moons the food is likely to last. Starting with the first night of the new moon, divisions may be made every 10 days, the last one to coincide with a new moon, either in the first or second month after the commencement of the feasting. This emphasis on the moon as a governing factor in the *lovaya* feast links with the custom of replanting talo and other food plants on the days of the new moon to ensure good growth.

[621] 3. *Ngalaenga*, the feast which is held for a village guard at the end of its service in the reserve land or to pay the workers thatching a new house (pp. 36, 76).

4. *Wakamotinga*, the feast provided by the owner of a new canoe or of a new sleep house (not cook house) for the food contributors, the workers, and the principal people of the island. It is a bigger and more elaborate food division than the *ngalaenga*, though not elaborate enough to be classed as a *monotanga*.

[623] 5. *Kavakava*, a feast celebrating the end of a fishing contest (*malama*) or other inter-village contest. The food is provided by the whole island. Formerly the old men's group and the sub-chiefs decided on the contribution to be levied from each household. Today this levy is fixed by an informal meeting of village representatives.

Other feasts discussed in their special context are:

Wasle, *tamaeyanga*, and *puaki*, food divisions for the birth of children; *mulikuna*, food division on the occasion of an important marriage; *puyia wale* and *lukukunga*, feasts at death ceremonies; *laukava*, food divisions held at the command of the chief to mark his induction, the birth of an heir, or a death.

431 574 527 *Tasa kai o te uma* is a food division among members of the maternal lineage held on no set occasion, but whenever there is abundant growth of talo in the gardens controlled by the lineage.

Special names are given to the feasts of the paternal lineages:

262 613 *Lauvaisapi* (animal intestines), feasts of the two Ngake paternal lineages; *malolo ahi* (flying fish on the reef), feasts of the Yato lineages; *lingolingo* (land shells), feasts of the Loto lineages. These three names refer to the fishing set-up of the three villages. Ngake and Yato are the rich fishing villages with plentiful supplies of fish for their feasts; Loto is poor in fish supplies and the reference to land shells is indicative of the small amount of fresh food that this village could supply its guests. For these feasts, the reserve lands of the villages are opened by special arrangement, and special delicacies are expected—birds from Kotawa, turtle from Ko, and extra supplies of nuts from Uta. A paternal lineage gave a feast of this type at the conclusion of some special work—the building or rethatching of its god house, clearing the ground around its religious structure, clearing up its cemetery, building a new *yiunga* (religious avenue). When other paternal lineages learned that one group proposed to hold a feast, they all joined in sending courtesy gifts of food.

The mechanism is: a Ngake lineage is giving a feast; each household of the Ngake group is levied so much prepared talo; each household makes this amount of talo food and extra talo puddings for friendly households in the other villages which have initi-

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431 514 527 262 613 [572] crated privately that they will make a food contribution. The levied amount is sent to the main food collection along with the food received from the friendly households; when the food division is made, each friendly household receives in return from its Ngake friends the amount that it contributed, but the return gift is taken from reserve stocks that the Ngake household has made, over and above its levied contribution. A little extra food may be taken from the share of the Ngake household and added to the return gift so that families from other villages may receive the precise amount of food that they contributed plus a little more from the main division. The reciprocity is complete, but the addition to the return gift, a bit of fish or a few nuts, creates the cultural fiction that the host lineage has fulfilled required patterns of generosity. The food exchange has helped seal bonds of friendship between two households, without seriously impoverishing the hosts.

Official food dividers (*tangata tau popoa*) function for the big feasts:

[413] Formerly, the group of elders (*tupuna*) chose its own food dividers for the fish brought to it by the men's fishing groups. The chiefs had their own dividers for *kaikava* feasts, as did the paternal lineages and villages for their feasts. The food dividers were skilled men. Their position was not hereditary; if they were careless or cheated, they were summarily dismissed. With the exception of the dividers for the old men, who received certain pickings but who might not share in other foods reserved solely for the chief, the food dividers were supposed to share equally with the people for whom the division was made, though in fact they might secretly reserve for themselves as their own share better portions of fish or slightly larger talo puddings.

When the *tangonga* group of fishermen (p. 281) returned each day from fishing, the canoes were met by the two food dividers for the old men, who carried the fish from the canoes to the dividing place. When neither of the food dividers was able to carry a big fish to the meeting place (*aonga*), the old men called for volunteers, and the man who could carry the fish was given the privilege of dividing it.

FOOD PREPARATION

262 252 The staple foods of Pukapuka are fish, coconuts, and talo. Fish and coconuts are eaten every day, talo less often; but talo is important as a quality food which gives variety to an otherwise monotonous diet. Most talo dishes consist basically of a mixture of talo and coconut cream (*lolo*). Two standardized methods of wrapping food in bundles preparatory to baking are used only for talo dishes (fig. 6). Each food eaten, whether fish, talo, or coconut has a definite food complement (*kinahi*) which is eaten with it to make a complete meal.

The two methods of cooking food are oven baking (*tao*) and grilling (*hawa*) on hot stones or embers. Grilling is the preferred method for cooking fish.

Fire

372 Fire (*ahi*) was formerly produced with the fire plough. The method was demonstrated to me. The hearth stick of *punpun* wood is called *lakau iho ahi*. The rubbing stick, also of *punpun* wood, is *kaunati*. The hearth groove is *ihanga*. To rub the stick on the hearth is *ikoika*, and to make fire thus is *mate ahi*.

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OTHER PLANT FOODS

No origin myth is remembered for pandanus. Though it is not cultivated, pandanus grows abundantly. The keys (*penu*) may be eaten raw when ripe, with or without complement (*kinaki*). They may be sliced and baked (*wola tao*) and eaten with *ipiipi*. Grated raw and added to talo puddings (*olo wala* and *likoliko wala*) they give a sweet flavor. The juice of baked keys (*makano*) is used in the same way. The fruit is enjoyed by adults and children and provides an important flavoring and sweetening agent in the native diet. Children crack open the keys and chew the inner kernel. The woman in the moon, Yina, is said to be seen kneeling before a stone cracking open pandanus keys.

The banana was among the items fished up by Maui. Of the several varieties of banana (*wuti*) growing on the island today, *wuti pukapuka* is said to be old and indigenous. The trunk of the tree is called *pu wuti*. *Lito* is a small banana leaf; *laumuti*, a large leaf, used extensively in cooking as a food wrapper; *laumatu*, the old, dried, and withered leaf; *kau*, the leaf midrib; *kili*, the fruit peel; *kiko*, the flesh. Bananas are not abundant on the atoll and are not important in the daily diet. They grow in the talo beds and close to the houses. When available, they are much in favor as gifts. A household may get a small bunch of fruit from its trees once in five or six months. Bananas are ripened by hanging or by burying. A bunch (*to*) of green fruit is cut and buried in a hole in the ground 2 feet deep and lined with coconut husks. The bananas are placed on a bed of husks and covered with coconut mats (*polapola*), then more husks, and finally with earth. After three nights the bananas are ripe and are eaten raw or cooked on hot stones. If a meal is made of bananas the correct complement is *ipiipi*.

Some sugar cane (*to*) is grown today on the talo bed embankments. It is owned by the villages and at infrequent intervals is divided among all village members. The cane is peeled with the teeth and chewed by children and adults with great delight. The cane is *pona*; the rings around the cane, *va*. The few papaya trees (*ninita*) and lime trees (*tipolo*) are grown on Motu Kotawa and the fruits divided among all members of Yato village. One breadfruit tree on the atoll was planted by a man from Aitutaki. Its yield of fruit is negligible.

FLESH DIET

There were two staple flesh foods in former times, sea foods (fish, turtle, shellfish, crabs) and sea birds. (See pp. 27-31.)

No tapu against the eating of raw fish exists in Pukapuka, though visitors from Aitutaki have unsuccessfully tried to introduce the idea. Actually fish is not often eaten raw. A fishing crew occasionally eats some

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Tridacna shellfish (*paysa*) are eaten raw or mixed with coconut cream and baked in leaves in the oven. Persons especially fond of them collect large quantities which they preserve for future use or for periods of want by stringing them on coconut midrib fibers (*halava*), 30 to 40 *paysa* on each string. The strung *paysa* are baked for a day or overnight and then hung from house eaves to dry in the sun for about 10 days. Thereafter they are placed in baskets and stored until wanted.

Wild birds are not preserved in any way. They are grilled and eaten immediately after they are caught. A bird is plucked at the beach and the feathers allowed to drift anywhere. Head and claws are left attached to the body and the bird is not gutted or cleaned in any way. A length of green coconut midrib, thrust down the throat of the bird and into its stomach, is used to hold the bird over the flames and embers of a fire made of *ngaipu* coconut shells until it is suitably grilled. All the bones are picked clean; the internal organs with the small fish and seaweed in the stomach bag and intestines are considered especially tasty morsels.

The pig (*puaka*) and the chicken (*moa*) were introduced after white contact. The pig, brought by early missionaries, is eaten today only at feast times or in food divisions to pay workers for services.

A pig is led down to the beach and allowed to wallow in the sea to clean its skin before it is killed by choking. A stout stick is placed across the throat of the animal lying on its back with its legs held or tied. Men stand on each end of the stick until the animal is dead. The dead beast is singed (*mumula*) with flaming coconut leaves and the skin scraped (*vulusulu*) with a coconut shell. It is washed (*palupalu*) again in the sea so that the skin is clean (*makitakita*). The animal is then placed on a bed of coconut leaves laid on the ground. The stomach is opened up, the internal organs (*ngakau*), heart and liver, are removed and washed in the sea. The blood is caught in coconut cups and baked in them (*toto momoyo*, cooked blood). The intestines are grilled on hot stones; the liver and heart are wrapped in banana leaves and oven-baked. The whole pig is baked in an oven for 4 or 5 hours, according to the size of the animal, and then butchered and shared among the participants in the feast. The head (*ulu*), reserved for the chief, is cut off first; then in order the fore legs (*lima*), hind legs (*vae*), ribs (*ivi kayokayo*), back (*tua ivi*), and finally the hind quarter (*mulimuli*) are butchered. All these portions, together with the heart and liver, are again subdivided into the required number of smaller portions (*pona*). Save for the special portion for the chief, there is no reference in this division to rank or status.

Hens and roosters were introduced by a captain of a trading schooner whom the Pukapukans called Wuluwulu (Hairy-one) when he visited Pukapuka some time after the mission was well started in Samoa but before it was established in Pukapuka.

Chicken eggs play no important part in the diet today. It is probable that they were formerly left in the nests to hatch. At the present time eggs are used as gifts to visitors. We saw only one Pukapukan eating an egg, a child eating a hard-boiled egg. A great deal of trouble is taken over the raising of chickens, but at the present time they are rarely eaten. No household has enough chickens to have a chicken dinner very often. Only once, during the Christmas feasting, was a native family seen eating a chicken for a meal. A woman or a child chases the chicken to be killed, then hits the bird on the head until dead. Women or girls pluck the feathers, which are thrown into the sea. The body is singed, the head cut off, and the internal organs removed. The heart and liver are washed and baked on hot stones; the body is wrapped in banana leaves and baked in the oven. A live chicken, talo, and nuts are the usual gift feast sent to honor a friend. Only chickens found strangled in the trees or killed by the women's committee when found in the talo beds are regularly eaten by their owners.

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224 244 The dog was unknown in Pukapuka. The native rat (*Mus exulans*) was caught with the rat trap (*vaka kiole*) when it became a pest in the talo beds but was never eaten. Rats were never hunted with weapons for sport.

266 784 Though many stories are told about cannibals, cannibalism was probably not practiced on Pukapuka. The use of human bone was tapu (*ya*), punishable by the goddess Taua (p. 309).

Meals and Food Etiquette

264 No routine of set meals is followed. The nature and number of meals eaten by one household group on any one day depend entirely on the amount of food on hand and the program of work for the day:

> If the men have been fishing early in the morning, the family has a meal of fish and *iplipi* some time before 9 o'clock. If there has been no fishing and if there is no left-over supply of fish or talo, a regular meal is not eaten; each individual makes a fresh cocoanut or *uto* nut do. The Pukapukan feels no need for food before he starts work in the morning and may work until 10 or 11 o'clock without refreshment. A child going to school in the morning takes with him a drinking nut to eat as he walks along the road. A regular meal may not be eaten by a household for a whole day, sometimes even for the best part of two days. Before the second day has passed, fish is procured by some male member of the household and grilled for a formal meal, usually in the evening, not infrequently at 9 or 10 o'clock at night after the torch fishing. It was not unusual for us to be wakened in the middle of the night by a returning fisherman bringing us fish on the supposition that we would get up and eat it immediately. Our practice of eating at regular hours was always a matter of discussion and comment.

264 574 431 The words *kai, taumanaya, yamnyamu, lamulamu* apply to eating, whether by an individual alone or by a group, whether of a single cocoanut or of an elaborate meal. There is no Pukapukan word for guest or host, nor is there any custom of entertaining friends or relatives for an occasional meal in the household. Special indebtedness is repaid by sending food gifts to the home of the friend.

264 576 Whether the meal is taken inside the cook house or outside on the open ground—as is usual for a meal on a fine evening—men, women, and children all sit on cocoanut-leaf (*takapau*) mats, with crossed legs tucked under them. They sit in rows opposite each other. The food platters (*laulau*) are set (*takalevalava*) on *polapola* cocoanut mats in the middle. It is customary to rise and leave the group when satisfied (*yangia*). The food is taken from the center platters with the fingers in individual mouthfuls. Food etiquette is remarkable by its absence. There are no rules taught to the child on the correct way to eat food. There is no prescribed manner of chewing. Loud sucking, belching, gurgling, and loud smacking of the lips are all in good taste. The food may be packed into the mouth in any fashion. As it is divided into individual shares on the platters before being served, there is no opportunity for the quick eater to obtain more than his share of food.

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girdle with a single overhand knot so that an inch or more of the green end projects above the knot. The projecting end is laid along the girdle. The second leaf is similarly fastened over both green end of first leaf and girdle, the third leaf over the green end of second leaf and girdle. The process is repeated until a girdle of sufficient length is obtained. A plain headband of *mako uulu* leaf is worn with this girdle.

Girdles of *tamanakomako*, *lakau yili*, *pola puka*, and *maile* are made by placing twigs of the plant into bundles, each with the butts in the same direction. Each bundle is overlapped with the next bundle, the butts of the first bundle with the leaves of the second, and the girdle is bound together with continuous transverse turns of fiber stripped from the coconut midrib.

Girdles of banana leaves are made by stringing the stalks of a number of banana leaves on a coconut midrib fiber.

The girdle of coconut leaves is made by tying the ends of a strip of midrib-carrying leaflets round the waist.

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Any of these girdles may be worn as a bandolier by slipping it over the head and allowing it to fall across chest and shoulder. A bandolier of the *nau* plant is a favorite decoration of Ngake villagers. A thin strip of coconut midrib is bent into a circle and the ends fastened together. *Nau* twigs are laid round the rim of midrib and bound to it with transverse turns of green coconut leaflet.

Waist girdles made of pieces of pearl shell shaped like the shanks of small composite pearl-shell fishhooks and strung on a length of *uuo* fiber were termed *uuo titi ui*. They were worn as a fringe across the front of the waist on top of the basis garment. This ornament was a prized one and was worn only by persons of status. It was also an appropriate gift to give to the corpse of a beloved relative. One was seen by the grave diggers who opened an old grave by mistake (p. 164), but there is none on the island today.

[764]

Edge-Partington (8, 2d ser., pl.38,5) sketches a "girdle worn by men consisting of a long string of cowrie shells. The string passes along the mouth of the shell and plugged (*sic*)." This girdle, which is in the British Museum, is 120 inches long. Such a girdle would be intolerably heavy when worn round the waist, and it is possible that what was originally a sinker line for a seine net has been mislabeled as a waist girdle. My informants did not mention a girdle of this nature.

Breast Ornaments

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Breast ornaments were made of flowers or more permanently of pearl shell or other shells. Leis (*yei*) are made of *tiale* flowers strung together on a strip of pandanus. More elaborately, *tiale* flowers are alternated with transverse slices of the ripe pandanus key. These are made and worn by young men and women, often as lovers' gifts.

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Permanent leis of pearl or small sea shells are termed generically *yei*. One type of breast ornament (*yei liki ui*) is shown in figure 19,*a*. Another

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while died and it is presumed that this child will continue indefinitely to live with his own parents while being considered a member of the adopting father's lineage. In a third case, the reason is the illness of both adopting parents. In another, the adopting father is a very old man, unable to care for the child. He had previously also adopted the child's father, who lived with him as a boy. A further case did not involve a change of residence on the part of the adopted child because the adopting father is the husband of the child's maternal grandmother, with whom the child's unmarried mother lives. The reason given in two other cases is the death of the adopting parent or his wife. In the remaining five cases, involving eleven *tama kokoti*, no explanation could be offered by informants, though it is likely that the personal preferences of the blood and adopting parents were deciding factors.

Generally the *tama kokoti* is adopted before birth:

When a couple decides to adopt, they go to the selected parents at the time the mother is about three months pregnant. They say: "We wish to adopt this child as a *tama kokoti*," and then specify whether the sex of the child will make any difference. The blood parents discuss the matter with the paternal and maternal grandparents and with their bilateral kinship groups, to see if there is any objection to breaking a descent line, or whether any other friend or relative has a prior claim on the child. If agreement is reached, the adopting parents are informed, and from this time on they are required to feed the pregnant mother with the best of foods and to make special provision for her family whenever there is a food division.

The child's birth takes place in the house of the blood father, unless the house of the adopting father is close by, in which event delivery may take place in that house. Both adopting parents are present at the delivery as a matter of course, because of the fiction that it is really their child that is being born. All the relatives of the adopting parents make a point of being present for the same reason. It is the adopting group that renders all the necessary assistance to the parturient woman. The blood father and relatives may also be present, but only as onlookers who take no part in the confinement proceedings. After the child's birth, the adopting parents continue to be responsible for the mother and for the child. They provide the birth feast and the names for the new child.

Thereafter the mother nurses the child, who remains with her exclusively until time for weaning. Food gifts to the mother continue throughout the feeding period. At weaning, the adopting parents take formal possession of their child. A small feast marks the handing over; the adopting parents make gifts of valuables, pearl-shell hooks, malos, etc., to the blood group. This completes the adoption, and henceforth the child lives with the adopting parents. The blood parents give up all control over the child, and the child in turn assumes all the duties and responsibilities of its position as *tama kokoti* to the adopting parents.

As distinguished from a *tama kokoti*, the feeding child (*tama tuangai*) goes without ceremony to live with the adopting parents, who feed him. He helps his feeding parents, and brings to their household the food shares he receives from the village divisions. The relationship begins when the child is sent to relatives to be weaned:

Through a mixture of personal and economic motives, relatives may decide to keep a feeding child with them. The matter is discussed with the blood parents and decided upon, usually an easy matter, as no change of lineage membership is involved. The child remains a member of his home village. If he is taken by relatives in another village, he brings to this household foods in which the adopting village is deficient. Thus the adopting parents participate in a supply of food that would otherwise be denied them. If the adopting parents come to favor the feeding child, they make arrangements to turn

1:Beaglehole and Beaglehole E-5 (1934-5)1938 Pukapukans

597 the feeding relationship into a permanent *kokoti* relationship. This is done by mutual arrangement with the blood parents and is accompanied by a renaming of the child by the adopting parents.

The method of adoption before birth is a favored one. The adopting parents desire to have complete control of the adopted child, not only complete social control, but complete control also of the child's affections, if they are childless. Further, if the adopting parents are two generations removed from the child, they need assurance that he will not desert them in their old age. A divided loyalty in the child would be fatal to the complete success of the security desired. Nevertheless it is recognized that adoption at a later age gives the adopting parents a chance to test out the capabilities of the adopted child.

597 An additional occasion for adoption may occur when a man marries a
848 woman who already has a child by another man. If the husband expresses the desire to adopt and it is agreed on, the woman's child is adopted into the lineage of the husband and becomes his *tama kokoti*. Where the woman has conceived either by the husband or another man before marriage, the husband is considered the sociological father to the child born after the marriage, and the problem of adoption does not arise.

597 A tabulation of the relationship of the adopting parent to *kokoti* and *wangai* children is possible from the census material (table 6). Clearly, the range of possible relationships is well nigh infinite. Note, however, the outstanding and comparative importance of father's sister, mother's brother, and mother's father as the adopting parents. Almost equal in number are adoptions by maternal and by paternal relatives.

Adoption may be complicated by the exchange of adopted children and by the giving of adopted children as presents to another lineage. One interchange of children of close friends in adoption is recorded:

> Two men, Lepuama and Tiela, are cross cousins. Lepuama adopted as *tama kokoti* the son of Tiela. Tiela in turn decided to adopt from Lepuama. He contracted for Lepuama's next infant, which he thought would be a boy, to be handed to him as soon as it was born. A fair exchange of this nature is of children of the same sex, so that the status of the two families as regards continuity of descent is the same before and after the exchange. To Tiela's sorrow, Lepuama's child was a girl, but he stuck to his bargain and took the child.

597 The exchange is termed *yoani* (gift), *yoani inai* (to receive in exchange),
431 or *yoani atu* (to give in exchange). The interchange emphasizes a sentimental tie between two families, and ensures that neither side shall suffer by the gift relationship. Where the exchange is not carried out on one side, valuable gifts—fishhooks, a piece of land, a group of nut trees, or a section of privately owned taro beds—help to reestablish the status quo as regards the two families. Such a return gift is also called *yoani*. The practice of

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giving a material gift in exchange for an adopted child is more common than interchange of children for the reason that it is the childless couples which are more likely to adopt in the first place.

Table 6. Relationship of Adopting Parent to Child

Adopting Parent	Child	
PATERNAL	KOKOTI	WANGAI
1. Father's brother	4	-
2. Father's sister's husband	11	6
3. Blood father (not married to mother)	2	-
4. Paternal relative, detail lacking	1	1
Father's paternal relative:		
5. Father's father	3	-
6. Father's father's sister's son	1	-
7. Father's father's brother's son	1	-
8. Father's father's brother's daughter's husband	1	-
9. Father's father's sister's husband	1	-
Father's maternal relative:		
10. Father's mother's sister's son	1	-
11. Father's mother's brother's son	1	1
12. Father's mother's sister's husband	1	-
13. Father's mother's husband	2	1
14. Father's mother's brother	3	-
15. Father's mother's paternal relatives, detail lacking	2	-
Father's adopted paternal relatives:		
16. Father's adopted father	1	-
17. Father's adopted father's daughter's husband	1	-
18. Father's father's adopted son	1	-
MATERNAL		
19. Mother's brother	8	1
20. Mother's sister's husband	4	-
21. Mother's brother's friend	1	-
22. Maternal, detail lacking	4	-
Mother's paternal relatives:		
23. Mother's paternal relatives, detail lacking	11	-
24. Mother's father's mother's husband	1	-
25. Mother's father	6	1
26. Mother's father's sister's husband	1	-
Mother's maternal relatives:		
27. Mother's mother's brother	1	1
28. Mother's mother's husband	1	-
Mother's adopted maternal relatives:		
29. Mother's adopted father's son	1	-
30. Mother's adopted mother's adopted son	-	1
Totals	77	14

The census records three examples of adoption of *tama kokoti*, the adopting parent then giving the child (*kave te tama*) to another paternal lineage not the parents' own.

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dren by various lovers after she realizes her cultural position. She will live with relatives who will welcome the arrival of her children and will care for them with every attention. Her status without a husband in the community will hardly suffer, and she will not be morally condemned in any way. Her lovers will be unmarried or divorced or widowed men. As long as she does not welcome married men to her arms, she will remain a respected member of the group. Only if she becomes a husband stealer (*lakau taetae*) is she likely to run up against the intense disapproval of the married women.

A bachelor is referred to by the descriptive phrase, *kili pipilo* (bad-smelling skin), or *kiko kakava* (bitter flesh). There is no name for the bachelor status in relation to marital life, and such a status is outside the norm. Two very old men, one in Ngake, one in Loto, have never married; and one man in Yato of about 35 years is still unmarried. Besides these three there are only two deaf-mute males who will not marry. Of the two old men, informant felt that there was perhaps some truth in the descriptive phrases used of them. The younger bachelor helps to support his married sister and her large family; he may yet marry. There is no suggestion that any of these men is not normal psychologically or physically.

COURTSHIP

Patterns of courtship differ when individuals have in view a permanent relationship leading to marriage and when they intend a semi-permanent liaison or the pleasure of an evening only. Patterns also differ for relations between two unmarried persons and between a married person with one other than the socially recognized spouse.

A young man or woman is expected to enter into a temporary liaison as soon as he or she has completed the adulthood rite. In fact, one informant, Iti, stated that the girl's rite itself included the girl's first sexual experience.

The regular parading of the girls in the evening up and down the village street on the look-out for lovers and possible marriage mates was apparently a common custom in the days before the curfew sounded in Pukapuka.

Some men preferred to arrange meetings with girls through an intermediary. This custom was not common. The intermediary was called *kalele* (messenger), *tangata tuku poloaki* (meeting arranger), or simply *yoa* (friend). The friend visited the girl to give her the message (*poloaki*), naming the meeting place. Stories indicate that the use of an intermediary was often as dangerous as it was helpful to the lover's success.

Some permanent and semi-permanent liaisons are sealed by the exchange of gifts between the two lovers (*ipo*). These gifts are termed *wakatopu*, a word applied only to such presents. An intermediary effects the exchange, taking a present to the girl and receiving from her a gift of talo for her lover. The intermediary keeps some food for himself in payment for his

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services. Today an intermediary is looked upon by stricter parents with scorn as one who aids and abets intrigues, but there is no reason to assume that he was similarly regarded in former times. The gifts exchanged between lovers are tapu, to be used by the lovers alone. Another who wittingly or unwittingly wore *wakatapu* clothes or ate *wakatapu* food would be committing a disgraceful act (*luma*) termed *kai wakatapu*. The punishment for breaking this tapu is boils on the body and swellings over the eyes. Thus if the father of a family commits adultery and receives gifts of food from his mistress which he allows his children to eat, his children will suffer from sickness. Informants suggested that this is a good explanation for the incidence of hereditary ulcers and swellings that seem to visit successive generations of certain Pukapukan families, though they were unable to rationalize the fact that the gifts were dangerous to outsiders in the first instance.

MARRIAGE

Monogamy is the rule in marriage. In those exceptional cases of contemporary sororate or levirate, only the sibling with whom a person first lived was considered the married mate. Of the plural wives of individual men in the genealogies, informants stated that they were successive. Only one story collected concerns a polygamous man of Pukapuka (1). As divorce was easily achieved, the stimulus to polygamy which might otherwise have come from the desire for issue was not great, nor was the status of chiefs sufficiently elevated to provide an economic incentive for polygamy.

The paternal lineage (*pō*) and sub-lineage (*wakavae*) are nominally neither endogamous nor exogamic. (See table 8.) Closeness of blood relationship, which depends on the numerical size of the lineage, is the limiting factor in intra-lineage marriage.

Table 8. Intermarriage Between Paternal Lineages*

	Ngake		Loto		Yato		
	Matanga	Muliwutu	Yangalipule	i Tua	Yalonga	Yayi	Yamanuga
Matanga, Ngake	9	5	2	6	1	—	—
Muliwutu, Ngake	4	—	3	5	—	1	—
Yangalipule, Loto	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
i Tua, Loto	5	1	2	1	—	—	—
Yalonga, Yato	—	—	3	—	—	4	—
Yayi, Yato	5	2	2	4	2	3	—
Yamanuga, Yato	1	1	—	—	—	1	—

* Table 8 shows the amount of inter- and intra-lineage marriage in households which came within the census. The lower indicates inter-marriage between the paternal lineages of each village.

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unwilling, the girl is thus taken to the man. If she later runs away, she is dragged back to her husband. If she remains recalcitrant, girl, husband, and parents fight it out until one or the other decides to give in.

The marriage is finally concluded by a feast (*tuikinnu*) and by the presentation of gifts. In a marriage between undistinguished families or where there is a motive to keep it quiet, a feast is prepared by the bilateral relatives of both bride and bridegroom and is eaten on the same morning of the *wakamalama*, either at the boy's or the girl's house, depending on which is more convenient. Relatives of both principals bring gifts which are divided among themselves. If the families are distinguished or wish to make a display, a large feast is prepared before the prearranged night on which the boy is to come to the girl's house. Again, the relatives on both sides contribute.

Wedding gifts of food are of two kinds: *koukou*, gifts of *umu loloi* (a talo dish), *pulaka loloi* (a *pulaka* dish), uncooked talo, nuts or fish foods intended as a contribution to the feast to be divided among the relatives and friends present at the food division; and *tapu*, gifts of talo puddings (*kanaka*, *maru*, and *olo*), bananas, chickens or fish, which are given as personal presents to the bride and groom, to be eaten only by them. The food is brought together early in the day. In the afternoon the bride and groom sit outside either's house while relatives bring them mats, malos, ornaments, sennit, fishing gear, and today piece goods, soap, and the like. This phase of the marriage is termed *wakaurolo* (aggrandizing). Gifts brought by the girl's relatives are laid at the feet of the boy: those brought by the boy's relatives are laid before the girl.

Before presenting his gifts the donor may make a few dance steps and improvise a chant in which he lauds his own kinship group, refers to its wealth, and makes derogatory remarks about the poverty of the other principal's relatives. A presentation from the groom's side is followed by one from the bride's side, and the same type of praise and insult is repeated. This goes on for a long time, each kinship group endeavoring to outdo the other in the multiplicity and value of the gifts presented. When the gift-giving ends through natural exhaustion, the food is divided (*tau*) among all those present. Later the permanent gifts presented by the boy's side are divided among the relatives of the girl, those presented by the girl's relatives are divided among the boy's group. Only those relatives who have made gifts participate in this division. The bridal couple rarely keep more than a few articles. The differentiation in gift-giving found in Samoa is absent; relatives of both bride and groom bring the same types of gift, whether of food or of durable goods.

Several marriages of the *wakaurolo* type occurred during our stay on the island and occasioned much excitement. As the burden of the gift-giving falls on the immediate families of the bride and groom, the drain on their wealth is considerable. One man who has married off three daughters at intervals of only a few months is now so impoverished that he fears his family will be sadly disgraced when his fourth daughter's *wakaurolo* takes place shortly. The father of the groom has insisted on reserving this *wakaurolo* until after the arrival of the bi-yearly trading schooner so that he may make such a show of gifts as will effectually put the bride's relatives in a very inferior position.

The marriage of a chief or of a son or daughter of the chief followed this general pattern. The mate for a member of the chiefly family was chosen from a family wealthy in talo and coconut trees. The usual gift-giving was held, but on an elaborate scale commensurate with the wealth and status of the two families concerned.

ADULTERY

The concept of adultery (*wakaipo*), as felt and acted upon in former times, is difficult to define. Informants looked at the matter in the following terms:

6:Beaglehole and Beaglehole E-5 (ca. 1935)1941 Pukapukans

597 nomic. The personal motive is the desire of a childless man to ensure the continuation of his patrilineal descent line; economic incentives include the desire of a childless couple for the food shares and property that an adopted child brings into the household, or for someone to care for them in their old age. The range of possible relationships between adopting parent and child is almost infinite. Study of census material, however, shows that adoptions by maternal and paternal relatives are almost equal; the father's sister, mother's brother, and mother's father are likely to adopt more frequently than any other relatives.

597 [431] 833 851 The process of complete adoption generally begins with the bespeaking of a child before its birth. The adopting couple feed the mother from the third month of pregnancy onwards. They present her family with special food gifts each time there is a food division. They name the child and provide the birth feast, taking formal possession of the child at weaning. This method of pre-natal adoption is looked upon as the best method of ensuring complete social and emotional control of the child. A divided loyalty in the child is looked upon as fatal to the complete success of the economic and psychological security desired by the parents. On the other hand it is recognized that adoption at a later age gives the parents a chance to evaluate the capabilities of the adopted child. Hence some parents favor a partial or feeding adoption at the beginning: the adopting parents take the child at weaning time into their household; if at a later date they wish completely to adopt the child, they do so by mutual arrangement with the blood parents, accompanied by a renaming of the child.

597 828 577 All our Pukapukan informants sensed the conflict situations involved in this extensive practise of adoption. The adopted child is considered to be the child of the adopting parents in everything except the accident of conception and gestation, though the fiction is that the adopting parents become sociological parents before birth through their pre-natal feeding of the mother. The adoption is held to break all kinship ties based on blood and new kinship obligations are established according to the relationships of the adopting parents. As the child grows up, however, he soon learns to know his blood parents. He may be permitted to visit them, to work with them, to care for them in sickness, but it is to his adopting parents that the child owes primary social and affectual obligations and on whom he is supposed to lavish all his interest and support. Because of the complete sociological break that adoption is supposed to occasion, the conflict situation which blood parents, either through motives of natural affection or economic advantage, may stimulate by encouraging their child to visit them, by petting him, lavishing affection over him, saving choice food for him, is regarded with dismay and hostility. Blood parents who in any way try to revive blood ties are regarded as black traitors. If a child shows more than a formal interest in his blood parents, the latter are expected to show in every possible way, even by resorting to violent whippings, that the child is unwanted. Similarly, adopting parents are justified in severely disciplining an adopted child who persists in sneaking off to a blood parent's household. The following examples will illustrate these points:

577 159 152 Lima (7:0), the adopted child of Mata and Lekeu, comes back to Mata's house from working in the bush with Lekeu, eats some food, throws off his lavalava and then starts to walk down the